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ABSTRACT

Today Spanish speaking migrant families from the Rio Grande Valley are moving to such eastern states as Florida and New York, as well as to the western agricultural states. Because these children are migratory, they have special social and physical needs. Therefore, programs developed for them cannot focus solely on academic needs and classroom activities. Comprehensive programs must consider and, if possible, include the family and the community in order to meet the children's needs as completely as possible. This monograph discusses the development of special programs for these Spanish speaking migrant children. Topics covered are: definition of bilingual education and English as a Second Language (ESL), judicial and legislative support, pre-program assessment, grade and age level, children's length of stay, integration with or segregation from the regular school program, selection of program models (i.e., intensive ESL, pull-out ESL, transitional model, maintenance bilingual model, and supplementary model), establishment of instructional program goals based on the model, program staff, parent and community involvement, support services, instructional materials, student and program evaluation, and dissemination. Colleges and universities which offer bilingual education training, and bilingual education centers are listed in the appendices (NQ)

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BILINGUAL/ESL PROGRAMS FOR MIGRANT CHILDREN

by

BETH ARNOW

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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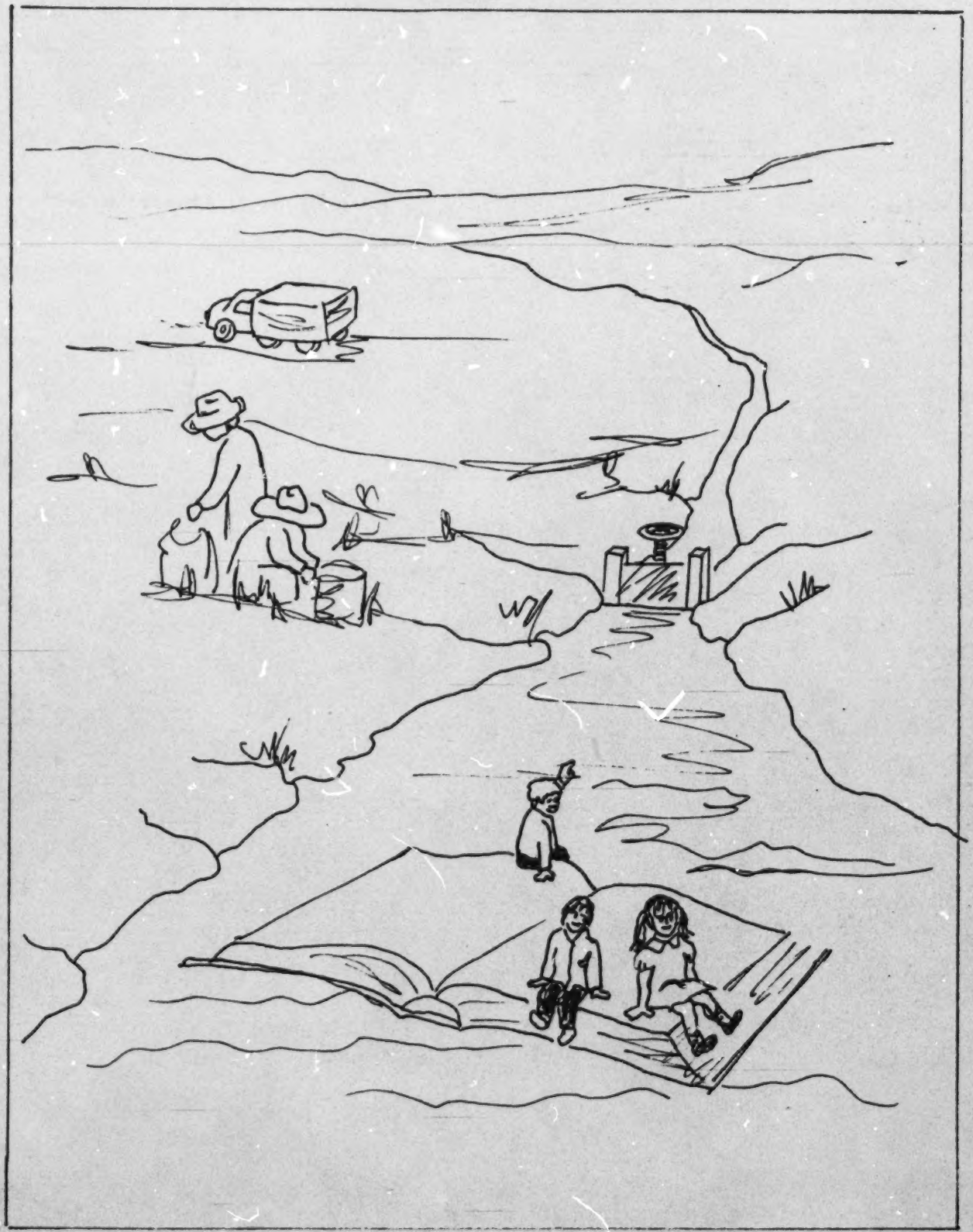

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INTRODUCTION

As the United States grew from a rural economy to an industrial economy, the shape of agriculture changed. Many small farms that were once family owned and operated were swallowed up. As agri-business grew, the need for cheap, temporary labor grew, and thus, migrant streams came into being. In the east, the migrant stream developed out of the share-cropping system, and has been traditionally Black, with a small number of poor Whites. Blacks, historically discriminated against, often found that the low paying temporary farm work was the only type of employment they could obtain.

In the western part of the U. S., the search for cheap labor focused primarily on immigrant groups. After the completion of the transcontinental railroad, many Chinese were recruited as farm laborers in California. Later, the Chinese were replaced by Japanese and Filipino workers. This supply of labor was limited in 1924 when Congress passed the Immigration Act excluding Orientals.

Mexicans began to enter this country in large numbers in the first decade of the twentieth century. Coming from an agrarian society, they were ideal as farm laborers. During the second World War, labor was in such short supply that Congress made an informal agreement with Mexico to accept their workers for agriculture. The bracero program was formalized in 1951 to control the flow of Mexican labor into this country. The program was terminated in 1964 because Mexican workers took nearly $100 million in U. S. dollars back to their homeland each year.

During the years from the early part of the century to the 1960's, many of the workers who came stayed and made this country their home. The Senate Subcommittee on Migratory Labor set the migrant population at one million in 1969. The Migrant Research Project completed by the Manpower Evaluation and Development Institute in 1970 found that this migrant population was 75 percent Mexican American and 19 percent Black, with a remaining 6 percent Native American, Puerto Rican, and others. There are no current figures concerning the numbers of Spanish surnamed and/or Spanish speaking migrant workers, but estimates range from 70 to 85 percent.

The patterns of the migrant streams have changed in recent years. Because of increased job opportunities, many Blacks have been able to drop out of the eastern stream. Migrant families from the Rio Grande Valley now move to states such as Florida and New York and other eastern states, as well as to the western agricultural states. A recent survey by the state of Florida indicated that 75 percent of the migrant children in Collier County, Florida, are Mexican American. The Spanish speaking migrant now works and lives in 48 states.

This monograph is concerned with the development of special programs for Spanish speaking migrant children. Because these children are migratory, they have special social and physical needs, and programs developed for them cannot focus solely on academic needs and classroom activities. Comprehensive programs must consider and, if possible, include the family and the community in order to meet the needs of the children as completely as possible.

The fact that Spanish speaking migrant children have difficulty speaking and understanding the English language both affects, and, in many

cases, determine the implementation of migrant programs. For this reason, this paper cites much of the literature currently available in bilingual education, and attempts to point out that which is relevant to Spanish speaking migrant children. The learning process of a Spanish speaking migrant child is not much different from the learning process of a Spanish speaking non-migrant child, although studies have shown that there may be significant differences in learning processes between children of different cultural groups.

There are many difficulties in implementing English as a Second Language (ESL) and bilingual education programs for migrant children. Little by little, through implementation of such programs and further research, better comprehensive services can be developed for Spanish speaking migrant children in the future. Since bilingual education of migrant students has only become important nationally within the past ten years, much work remains yet to be done in program development.

RATIONALE

Definitions

Children of limited English speaking ability have been defined as those "who were not born in the United States or whose native language is a language other than English, and (children) who come from environments where a language other than English is dominant. . . and by reason thereof, have difficulty speaking and understanding instruction in the English language" (United States Commission on Civil Rights Clearinghouse, 1975: p. 196). This definition certainly includes large numbers of migrant children.

There are basically two types of instructional programs that can be utilized with these children--bilingual education and English as a Second Language (ESL). The two terms are often confused, and thus are carefully defined here.

According to the Bilingual Education Act of 1974, a bilingual education program is one in which there is "instruction given in, and study of, English, and, to the extent necessary to allow a child to progress effectively through the educational system, the native language of the children of limited English-speaking ability, and such instruction is given with appreciation for the cultural heritage of such children, and with respect to elementary instruction shall, to the extent necessary, be in all courses or subjects of study which will allow a child to progress effectively through the educational system" (PIL. 93-380). More simply stated, bilingual education makes use of two languages to instruct a child who has only

a limited command of English so that he can progress effectively. The amount of time spent in each of the two languages depends on the child and his skills in each language. Bilingual education, as defined by law, also includes bicultural education, which means that bilingual programs must be sensitive to the child's cultural heritage.

An ESL program is a planned instructional program for teaching listening, speaking, reading, and writing in English to children whose native language is not English. The ESL program methods used to teach foreign language education, focuses on the sound, structure, and vocabulary of the English language. ESL requires long periods of intensive instruction. Although it is an important component of any bilingual program by itself, ESL is not bilingual education, since bilingual education laws require that children be taught partly in their native language.

Judicial and Legislative Support

In recent years bilingual education and ESL have received support from several different sources. The first Bilingual Education Act of 1967 allocated monies for the development of bilingual demonstration programs, and federal support has been increasing since that time. The Lau vs. Nichols Supreme Court decision of 1972 gave further support to the concepts of bilingual education and the teaching of English as a second language. In the court decree, Justice Douglas stated: "There is no equality of treatment merely by providing students with the same facilities, text books, teachers, and curriculum; for students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education" (Supreme Court Opinion 72-6520, p. 3). The Court did not specify any remedy, but stated

that ESL and instruction in the child's native language will help migrant students receive this "meaningful education."

The Equal Educational Opportunity Act of 1974 focused on the responsibilities of school systems and decided upon and defined actions which effect a denial of equal educational opportunity. The Act states that "the failure by an educational agency to take appropriate action to overcome language barriers that impede equal participation by its students in its instructional program (United States Commission on Civil Rights Clearinghouse, 1975: p. 197) constitutes a denial of equal education opportunity." The growth of bilingual education and ESL programs has received further impetus from other legislative and judicial decisions at the federal and state levels.

Relevancy to Migrant Children

According to a recent definition, a "'currently migratory child' is a child who has moved with a parent or guardian within the past twelve months across a school district boundary or boundaries in order that a parent, guardian or member of his immediate family might secure temporary or seasonal employment in an agricultural or fishing activity" (Federal Register, July 8, 1975: p. 28624). Slightly more than half a million of these children are enrolled in the Migrant Student Record Transfer System, and there may be half a million more children who can be defined as migrant who are not carried on these rolls. If 75 percent of these children are Spanish speaking (a conservative estimate), there are at least 375,000 enrolled migrant children and as many as 375,000 non-enrolled migrant children who could benefit from bilingual or ESL instruction. These

children have special needs because of their mobility, and special needs because they don't speak much English. Too often in the past they have been looked at as "problem children" only because their needs are different. Perhaps the best example of this "problem" point of view appeared in the May, 1975 Education Briefing Paper on migrant children which stated: "To make matters worse, many of them can't speak English" (p. 1).

As shown in the past, a regular school program cannot meet the needs of these Spanish speaking migrant children. Without a nationally coordinated migrant program, local educational districts cannot provide the educational continuity these children so desperately need. And without well organized ESL and bilingual education programs, these children will effectively be denied equal educational opportunity.

An agency at the federal level needs to assist states and local school districts in providing educational continuity. Since migrant children do not remain within fixed geographic boundaries, such as school districts and states for long periods of time, and since they may not attend school at all for weeks at a time, the federal government must take the responsibility for assuring that these children receive relevant and continuous educational opportunities. Since most migrant children are Spanish speaking, ESL and bilingual education must continue to be important thrusts at the national level.

States that share the same children need to work together in order to provide better educational services. In many cases, state educational agencies can provide strong leadership in the development of local educational programs. State agencies can take the initiative in providing training and technical assistance to local school districts which do not

have the resources to serve their Spanish speaking children effectively. State migrant personnel can also be instrumental in providing materials for local programs. Successful instructional programs are most likely to result when personnel at all levels work together to develop them.

PROGRAM PLANNING CONSIDERATIONS

Pre-Program Assessment

Joshua Fishman and John Lovas, in the article, "Bilingual Education in Sociolinguistic Perspective" (1970), stated that realistic societal information is needed in order to establish realistic educational goals. In other words, any successful educational program must meet the needs of the community and generate community support.

Making a pre-program assessment of migrant communities' and students' needs may be particularly difficult to accomplish. Often program administrators do not know when children will arrive, where they are from, or what their needs are. Determination of community needs and desires is complicated by the fact that migrants live in more than one community in the course of their work. Not only do these factors frustrate planning at the local level, they undoubtedly contribute heavily to the rather fragmented education migrant children currently receive.

While there are no easy solutions to these problems, some programs have made attempts to solve them. In places where the pattern of migrant movement is fairly stable, personnel at the receiving site can communicate with personnel in the home base state in order to conduct a pre-program assessment. Questions that need to be asked include:

- How many limited English speakers live within the migrants' home base community?
- How many bilingual persons are in the community?
- What are their skill levels in each language?

- Which languages are increasing or declining within the total home base community?
- Are students moving into or out of the home base community?
- What are the community's attitudes toward English as a second language and/or bilingual education?
- What are the students' levels of subject matter achievement?

To obtain enough information to answer these questions, interstate cooperation is a must. A program that has children for only a short period of time must interact with the home base location in order to know what the children and their community need.

Once all the basic community information is gathered in the pre-program assessment, there are still several critical factors which affect model selection. These factors concern general student characteristics and program administration as related to funding.

Grade and Age Level. Grade levels of students must be carefully considered in model selection. A group of recently immigrated high school students who do not speak English will certainly have a more urgent need for an intensive ESL program than a group of kindergarten children who do not speak English. Pre-kindergarten children who do not speak English will probably have a greater need for bilingual education to further develop concepts they have already established in the home language and to foster home-preschool continuity.

Length of Stay. The students' intended length of stay in the program is another critical factor. A program that has students for six months of the year would have more options for model selection than a program that has students for shorter periods of time. This time factor may not be as important if the receiving site has coordinated with the home base site to

minimize differences in instructional procedures and materials. The length of time needed to introduce a child to an instructional situation versus the total length of time the child will be in the program must be analyzed.

Integration with or Segregation from the Regular School Program. The fact that Title I Migrant monies may not be used to supplant regular school functions and services has a great bearing on model selection and program implementation. A program operating within a school system that only releases migrant children for an hour a day for special tutoring, for example, cannot expect to offer those children a full bilingual program under the auspices of the migrant program. A supplementary migrant program must focus on the special instruction which is not available to the children in the regular classroom. Migrant personnel working under such restricted conditions might encourage local school personnel to provide a bilingual program with other funds.

Whether or not limited English speaking migrant students are integrated into classrooms with native English speaking students (migrant or non-migrant) will affect the rate at which they learn English. A small group of limited English speaking students exposed to a large group of English speaking students will tend to learn English much faster than a large group of limited English speaking students exposed to a small group of English speaking students. It is natural to interact only with those who speak one's native language, especially for older students and adults, but such interaction inhibits their ability to learn the second language.

Selecting a Program Model

Several researchers and practitioners have developed models and typologies for ESL and bilingual education. Fishman and Lovas (1970) defined their program types in terms of differences in community and school objectives. They arrived at the four broad categories of: (1) transitional bilingualism, (2) monoliterate bilingualism, (3) partial bilingualism, and (4) full bilingualism.

Bruce Gaarder, in "Organization of the Bilingual School" (1967, pp. 110-120) does not consider transitional bilingual education to be true bilingual education. The factors he considers in his typology are: the number of student linguistic groups, the particular language added, mixing and/or segregation of classes, and time allotted to and treatment of the languages in the curriculum. He gave examples and descriptions of six of the eight organizational patterns.

In "A Typology of Bilingual Education" (1969), William F. Mackey developed a typology of 90 different models based on the languages used in the home, in the school, in the area, and in the nation. He further characterized curriculum in terms of transfer or maintenance, direction (acculturation or irrendentism), distribution (different or equal), and change (complete or gradual).

Unfortunately, many of these models and typologies are not appropriate for describing programs for migrant children for various reasons. First, migrant children are often not in one school long enough to establish the educational continuity which is an integral part of many of these models. Second, the restrictions placed on the use of Title I Migrant monies by the

supporting legislation does not always permit migrant programs to be fully integrated into the regular school program. Often such full integration can only be accomplished through the use of different funding sources.

This section attempts to isolate several different ESL and bilingual education models which can be implemented for migrant children. Each is described and its advantages and disadvantages discussed.

ESL Models

Intensive ESL

An intensive ESL program as described by Mary Finocchiaro (1969) is one designed specifically for English oral language development for limited English speaking students. It is not the same as a language development program for students who already speak English, as the program makes a conscious effort to teach students the features of the English sound, structure, and vocabulary systems. The program does not encourage use of the students' native language. Limited English speaking students are isolated from native English speaking students for the major part of the day for intensive ESL instruction.

An intensive ESL program could be used in a summer program to teach migrant students as much English as possible before the regular school year (which should include follow-up instruction). Intensive ESL may be especially useful with small groups of older migrant students who may not be in school much longer, and thus need to obtain as many English skills as possible in a short time span. This program could also be used during the regular school year for migrant pre-schoolers to prepare them for a

monolingual English elementary school. Because children given this program would face a radical change in environment, extreme care should be taken to maintain a strong relationship between home and pre-school to provide the children with the proper emotional support.

Probably the main disadvantage of an intensive ESL program is that it does isolate limited English speaking migrant students from important contact with native English speaking students. This peer interaction is an important learning tool that is often forgotten in education. Such segregation can cause fragmentation among student populations unless a special effort is made to bring them together in other activities.

Pull-Out ESL

In the pull-out ESL model as described in A Better Chance to Learn: Bilingual-Bicultural Education (United States Commission on Civil Rights Clearinghouse, 1975: p. 81) the student receives instruction for a portion of the day from an ESL teacher and participates in the regular English classroom instruction for the rest of the day. Such a program can be valuable for a migrant student who has enough skill in the English language to benefit from regular instruction, but who needs additional work in areas such as vocabulary development. Before assigning a migrant child to a pull-out ESL program, program directors must be sure that the child does indeed have enough skill in English to benefit from regular English classroom instruction. A pull-out ESL program is also an appropriate follow-up for migrant students who have already been in an intensive ESL program. The fact that migrant students are with their native English speaking peers for the major portion of the day undoubtedly facilitates their learning of English.

ESL Support Type Component

The concept of an ESL support type component was introduced by Muriel Saville-Troike (1974). An ESL support type component is included within the regular classroom instruction, and provides migrant students with necessary English language skills, as well as the opportunity to use these skills in a real situation. A professional or a trained paraprofessional could provide support type activities for English as a Second Language and integrate them into the regular content areas. This approach would also allow for a great deal of individualization for limited English speaking migrant students.

The main advantage of an ESL support type component is that the child learns a certain amount of subject matter as he receives language instruction. Furthermore, integration of limited English speaking migrant students with native English speaking students promotes their learning of English.

Bilingual Models

Transitional Bilingual Model

In transitional bilingual programs, the student's native language is used to teach subject matter while the student is in the process of learning English. The native language is used as a tool to teach English. Title VII legislation and most state bilingual education laws mandate transitional programs. Several state laws mandate that students be enrolled in a transitional program for a period of three years, or until they are proficient in English.

Transitional bilingual programs are certainly a step forward for states in which it was previously illegal for a language other than English to be used in the classroom. Using the student's native language allows

him to further develop skills he has already begun to learn while he is learning English. It helps develop strengths the migrant student brings from home, and thus promotes a stronger home-school relationship.

Because of the length of time necessary to effect a transition from Spanish to English usage, migrant students must be in the program for a substantial span of time, and there must be a high degree of enrollment carry-over from year to year. The effectiveness of a transitional bilingual program is increased through strong coordination between the home base site and the temporary site. One such program has been successful in providing the same curriculum, the same support services, and even the same staff while the children migrate (Bilingual Mini-School Tutoring Project, 1972-75). Accomplishing this sort of coordination is by no means an easy task, but it is possible.

Maintenance Bilingual Education

Maintenance bilingual programs encourage the student to develop and maintain both languages and encourage academic growth in both languages. To be most effective, maintenance bilingual programs must be continuous, pre-K to post-secondary.

Some bilingual educators feel that maintenance bilingual education is an ideal toward which committed professionals should be reaching. They point out society's need for individuals who are fully bilingual. Transitional bilingual programs tend to phase out non-English language, although it may be considered as important as English. The disagreements between those who favor maintenance education versus those who favor transitional bilingual education are based on involved sociolinguistic, economic, and

political factors which will probably remain entangled for years to come.

Maintenance bilingual programs have many of the same operational requirements as transitional bilingual programs, except that they are continued over a much longer period of time. Migrant students in these programs must be at one site for a substantial amount of time, or else there must be very strong cooperation between the home base site and the receiving site. A maintenance bilingual program could best be implemented in the home base site to which a large majority of the same families return each year and in which loyalty to the mother tongue is strong.

Supplementary Model

A supplementary bilingual model (Models of Bilingual Education, Spring, 1972) can be used to give migrant students partial bilingual instruction. This model requires that limited periods in the school day be set aside for instruction in the native language. If students are in need of ESL instruction, it is given at a separate time. The supplementary bilingual model can be used in conjunction with any of the ESL models.

Many bilingual educators do not consider such a supplementary program to be a true bilingual education program. Nevertheless, it is used by some school systems which for various reasons have not been able to implement full bilingual programs but which wish to provide limited English speaking children with some instruction in their native language. Because of restrictions placed on the use of Title I Migrant monies, the supplementary bilingual program sometimes provides the only means by which a small group of Spanish speaking migrant students can receive native language

instruction within a large non-bilingual school system. The supplementary bilingual program can reinforce concepts the migrant student learns in the regular classroom as well as improve his self-concept. For maximum effectiveness, there must be close contact between the regular classroom teacher and the native language arts teacher.

Establishing Instructional Program Goals Based on Model

Administrators, staff, and community must define the goals they hope to achieve within given time limits in order to determine which bilingual and/or ESL model they wish to implement.

Once they have selected an appropriate program, program administrators decide how to pace and measure student growth in language proficiency in both the subject areas and the affective areas. The staff must determine students' initial skill levels and decide upon valid ways of measuring student achievement. Student growth is most often measured in terms of tests, checklists, inventories, etc., but other factors, such as increased attendance and decreased drop-out rates, can be very valid measures of program success.

Many programs establish goals for themselves in areas other than instruction. As program managers become more sophisticated, they establish measurable objectives for themselves in management. Objectives can also be established in the areas of curriculum materials development, staff development, parental involvement, and support services. The Pasco, Washington project reports (1972-75) give excellent examples of how to develop program objectives to meet program goals.

Instructional Program Staffing to Meet Program Goals

Unfortunately, instructional goals are more often determined by the skills the instructional staff can teach rather than the skills the children need. Because of the shortage of qualified ESL and especially of bilingual teachers, careful staffing for migrant programs is critical. Although program administrators establish overall goals for a program, classroom teachers and aides have the responsibility for establishing more specific goals and objectives for individual migrant children.

The administrative staff must have a clear understanding of what skills are necessary for the migrant teaching staff to meet the overall program goals. Mary Finocchiaro, in Teaching English as a Second Language (1969), described the required competencies for ESL teachers. Some of the competencies she listed were:

> insight into the students' linguistic and cultural background;
>
> indepth knowledge of the features of the English sound, grammar, vocabulary, and cultural systems;
>
> skills in the methodology of teaching English as a second language;
>
> skills and techniques in grouping;
>
> skill to utilize and develop instructional materials consistent with program objectives and students' needs;
>
> ability to diagnose and evaluate individual student progress; and
>
> ability to provide a positive classroom environment and develop positive self-concepts.

In addition to this list, ESL teachers of migrant children should have a good understanding of the migrant child and his lifestyle. The ability to communicate with the migrant parent is also an important skill.

At a conference sponsored by the Center for Applied Linguistics, bilingual educators proposed guidelines for the preparation and certification of bilingual bicultural education teachers (The Linguistic Reporter, October, 1974). According to this conference, migrant program administrators should consider the following areas in selecting staff:

personal qualities;

language proficiency;

knowledge of linguistics;

knowledge and skills in cross-cultural settings;

skills in instructional methods;

skills in curriculum utilization and adaptation;

skills in assessment;

skills in school-community relations; and

experience in supervised teaching.

Once the administrators of a migrant program have defined the staff skills necessary to meet their program goals, they can interview potential staff members. The classroom staff should include both professionals and paraprofessionals. Very rarely, if ever, will program administrators be able to assemble a staff with all the required competencies. A careful inventory must be taken to ascertain what skills the staff members have and what skills they need.

As the teaching staff's skills and competencies are assessed, a program of preservice and inservice training can be planned to meet their needs. It is at this point that state bilingual and migrant staffs, local universities, and outside consultants can be useful. Training goals and objectives should be established by teacher trainers skilled in the areas of migrant

education, bilingual education and/or ESL, in conjunction with classroom staff. Classroom personnel often know their own needs far better than anyone else.

Many universities have ESL teacher training programs, and a growing number of universities offer training in bilingual bicultural education from the aide level to the doctoral level (see Appendix A for a list). The Training and Resource Centers funded through Title VII also have technical expertise in these areas (see Appendix B for list). Personnel at these institutions can be utilized to structure training programs particularly relevant to the needs of teachers of migrant children.

A series of manuals for teacher training entitled New Approaches to Bilingual Bicultural Education (1974) has been developed by Manuel Ramirez, P. Leslie Herold, and Alfredo Castaneda. These manuals deal with theories of bilingual bicultural education, theories of cognitive learning styles of Mexican American children, and ways of implementing these theories in the classroom. The booklets could greatly assist a migrant program to establish its own structure for staff training.

Parent and Community Involvement

Parent and community involvement in planning a migrant program should begin before the staff is selected. Parents and communities should be involved with pre-program assessment and successive phases of planning, implementation, and evaluation. Migrant parents and community members should be consulted on policy and decision making and on setting program goals and objectives.

Unfortunately, migrant parents are frequently not in the community when most of the planning is done. The typical migrant workday of up to fourteen hours leaves most migrant parents with very little time in which to involve themselves in school programs. Still, effective communication with parents while they are still in the home base state can sometimes increase parent participation in decision making. Migrant program directors are encouraged to talk with community leaders who may themselves persuade parents to become involved with the program.

The La Grulla - Ephrata program, which is a cooperative effort between the states of Texas and Washington, has developed an innovative technique for involving parents (Bilingual Mini-School Tutoring Project, 1972-75). All migrant parents or family members who give time to the program receive hourly payments in the form of vouchers. Their activities range from working with students in the classroom and assisting with special field trips to building shelves and painting, etc. The Parent Committee decided that all money earned through working in the program would be donated to a special fund which is controlled by the committee. To date, the funds have been used to make emergency loans to families, to buy playground equipment, and for special holiday parties for the children and families. Thus, the money invested in parent involvement has benefited the program in many ways. Other programs have encouraged parent involvement by giving one free hour of babysitting for each hour worked in the program.

Not only should migrant parents be involved in their children's education, but also in educational programs for themselves. Parent education programs must be carefully planned to insure that they do reflect the needs and desires of migrant parents and are convenient for them to attend. Adult

educational programs can also be extended to include older teenagers. Some such possible programs include ESL classes, high school equivalency (GED) or consumer education classes. To involve the migrant parents further in their children's education, a toy lending library could be implemented. This type of program would not only provide toys to families, but would also teach parents how to play with their children to promote their cognitive and psychomotor development. Previously successful programs have included nutrition education classes for parents. Such classes teach migrant parents how to prepare nutritious inexpensive dishes as well as the basic concepts of nutrition. A well-planned adult migrant program might stress the cultural food preferences of the parents and introduce new but inexpensive "American" dishes.

Finally, parents should be employed as instructional personnel and support staff whenever possible. Parents on a migrant staff provide a most important link between school and community. Furthermore, parents who assume jobs in instructional programs may no longer need to work as migrants. And as migrant children begin to see community parents in the classroom, they may become more aware of job opportunities outside the migrant stream.

The permanent residents of the host community should be involved as much as possible in migrant programs. The cooperation of the grower or farm manager can be most important. Such permanent residents must be convinced that the advantages of a migrant program for children outweigh possible unpleasant consequences for themselves. Involving permanent community members in the program can do much to break down traditional barriers between the host community and the migrants.

Support Services

Support services must be an integral component of a migrant program. A child who is not healthy and does not have a well-balanced diet will not learn well in the classroom. Before the migrant children arrive, contacts for support services must be made, and a file listing available services must be started. A plan for conducting the child and family needs assessments for health and social services and for providing follow-up services should be developed and person(s) responsible for each aspect should be designated. The Migrant Student Record Transfer System should provide the basic medical record keeping system, but each program will need its own social services record keeping system.

General arrangements for medical and dental check-ups must be anticipated. Special consideration must be given to locating either support services personnel who can speak the language of the students and the parents or staff who can translate. A bilingual staff may be useful in social service areas such as food stamps, Medicaid, and possibly housing.

Food services must also be planned before the students arrive. Many programs have made special efforts to incorporate the students' ethnic foods into the food services program. A parent advisory committee can provide innovative ideas for food services.

CLASSROOM CONCERNS

The program staff must decide how to organize the classroom to meet the program goals and the needs of individual migrant students. The program model selected will do much to structure the classroom program and schedule. The basic strategies for ESL and bilingual classrooms are discussed in this section.

The ESL Classroom

In an ESL support type program, the bilingual instructor works in the classroom alongside the regular classroom teacher. While the classroom teacher is carrying out regular activities, the bilingual instructor assists limited English speaking students in understanding the concepts presented as well as in gaining English second language skills. The teachers plan classroom activities together.

Teachers must decide how much time will be devoted to ESL activities each day. Time spent on ESL should depend largely on the students' ages and attention spans, as well as upon how much they could learn informally from native English speaking students in non-academic situations such as physical education, art, music, etc.

Listening and speaking are the skills emphasized for beginning ESL students and for younger students at any proficiency level. It should be emphasized that placing a limited English speaking student in a remedial English language arts program primarily designed to teach reading does very little to teach the child English. Learning to read is a complicated

task, and a child cannot do it well unless he has good listening, comprehension, and speaking skills.

Children needing ESL instruction will be at a variety of skill levels, and will probably need to be grouped for instruction. Careful grouping by skill rather than age level will make the ESL teacher's task much easier.

The Bilingual Classroom

If a school system selects a supplementary bilingual program, instruction in the native language will be given during a set aside portion of the day, usually by a teacher employed specifically to teach migrant children. The regular classroom activities will remain fairly much the same, although the supplementary classes should be coordinated with the regular classroom.

In both the maintenance and the transitional bilingual programs, classroom schedules and organization must be structured to provide children with exposure to and practice in both languages. Some programs recommend that language use should not be structured and that there should be free alternation of languages. Specialists in child language acquisition generally disapprove of this practice, saying that languages should definitely be kept separate so children will not confuse the two. These researchers feel that free alternation of languages will result in one "mixed language" instead of two independent language systems.

There are various ways of separating the two languages in the classroom. One alternative is to separate languages according to subject matter; for example, language arts and social studies may be taught in Spanish, math and science in English. A second alternative is to divide language use by time; for example, in the morning Spanish is used, in the

afternoon English is used. A third alternative, which can be very appropriate for a team-teaching situation, is separating the languages by teacher; e.g., the children speak English with Ms. Smith and Spanish with Mr. Garcia. A good discussion of classroom design appears in A Handbook for Bilingual Education (Saville and Troike, 1971).

As with ESL, consideration must also be given to grouping children for various activities. Migrant children will arrive with a wide range of skill levels and language levels. Some may speak no English, and some, though Spanish surnamed, may speak no Spanish. Their instructional needs will obviously be quite different and many activities will have to be done in small groups or on an individual basis. Classroom aides and parent volunteers can be most important in these efforts, but it is still the responsibility of the classroom teacher to organize the classroom and handle the basic groupings.

Materials

Instructional materials are important to an educational program. Materials often structure much of the classroom activity. Properly selected commercial materials can help the teacher provide a well defined scope and sequence of instructional objectives. Well planned and developed teacher made materials can provide an extra spark in student learning.

Bilingual and ESL teachers are fortunate that in the past few years more and more instructional materials have become available. While many materials will not fit any given program because of the differences in local language and culture, there are still many other materials available that can be adapted. The Bilingual Education Service Center of Illinois has

produced a document, Curriculum Materials for Bilingual Programs (Alvarado, 1973), which lists 3400 titles of materials in Spanish and English, and a supplement which lists an additional 675 titles (DeHoogh and Swanson, 1974). For each title, the subject, the suggested grade level, the media, the publisher, and the distributor are listed. Under a grant from the National Institute for Education, the Educational Products Information Exchange Institute evaluated over 100 Spanish language arts series in the EPIE Report: Number 73, Selector's Guide for Bilingual Education Materials (1976). A second volume, EPIE Report: Number 74, Selector's Guide for Bilingual Education Materials, Spanish "Branch" Programs, evaluated instructional materials in various subject areas. Those reports should be most helpful for migrant programs in the process of selecting materials.

The ESL classroom needs materials for teaching English vocabulary, structure, and pronunciation. Colorful pictures and audiovisual aids seem to be some of the best tools for teaching language. Puppets and many everyday objects can be necessities in the classroom. If the ESL teacher plans to coordinate ESL activities with the regular classroom activities, she must have materials that will focus on the classroom curriculum areas. These materials can be teacher made, or student made, or come from a variety of commercial sources. Often, one student teaching another with materials he has made stimulates learning.

The bilingual classroom needs materials for language arts in both languages, as well as materials in other subject areas in the language in which the subjects will be taught. It is most important that the materials selected be appropriate for the local language and culture. While few commercial materials will reflect a localized dialect, they can still be

used successfully with children. Curriculum developers are now leaning toward the use of a standard "international" Spanish, rather than localized dialects. Adaptation of materials by local migrant teachers can bridge the gap.

The Reading is Fundamental Program and Proyecto Leer are excellent sources for leisure reading materials in Spanish and English. Leisure reading materials are important for establishing a habit of reading in children. Other sources of materials are the materials development centers and the dissemination and assessment centers funded through the Bilingual Education Program (see Appendix B).

MEETING INDIVIDUAL STUDENTS' NEEDS

The academic and social growth of each and every student is the ultimate goal of any instructional program. To tailor an effective instructional program for each migrant student, the teacher must determine what skills each student has and what skills he needs. Ongoing diagnosis and evaluation of student progress is necessary during the course of a program to redirect teaching efforts

Cognitive Needs

To insure the most effective teaching of a limited English speaking migrant child, his teacher must quickly determine his skill level in the English language, the content areas, and, for a bilingual program, his skill in the native language. Teaching a child a skill that is inappropriate for his level is a waste of time that a teacher of migrant children cannot afford. Although much information is available on the Migrant Student Record Transfer System, each teacher must do some testing and diagnosis.

Tests of varying quality are available for diagnosing language proficiency, language dominancy, and academic achievement. The book, Evaluation Instruments for Bilingual Education: An Annotated Bibliography (1975), describes instruments that may be used with migrant children, and is available from the Dissemination and Assessment Center for Bilingual Bicultural Education. The Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory has evaluated language dominancy instruments in the publication Oral Language Tests for Bilingual Students: An Evaluation of Language Dominance and

Proficiency Instruments (1976). These tests may be particularly helpful for ESL and native language placement. As with instructional materials, care must be taken in selecting instruments to be sure that they are appropriate for the student population and will give the information necessary for instructional program planning.

An instructional program is designed, or prescribed, for each child based on the diagnosis of each child's skill level. The prescription sets general goals (e.g., Juan will improve his pronunciation) as well as specific objectives (e.g., Juan will pronounce v as in vase). The goals should provide sequential and continuous growth in English, the content areas, and in the native language if the program is bilingual. Goals for individual student achievement should be consistent with overall program goals.

The classroom environment should be organized so that the individual child can master the prescribed skill in the learning strategy that best suits him. Activities that can be very effective at times include work at learning centers, individual work, and small group work. Sometimes a student can master a skill most effectively with one-to-one tutoring by a teacher, aide, volunteer, or specialist. Ramirez points to some interesting concepts on the different cognitive learning styles in New Approaches to Bilingual Bicultural Education No. 4 Field Sensitivity and Field Independence in Children (1974). He states that Mexican American children tend to be "field-sensitive" and work better with their peers, whereas Anglo children tend to be "field-independent" and work better by themselves. According to this, the American school system, which traditionally emphasizes individualism and competitiveness, is not providing the most efficient learning

situations for Mexican American children. For many of them, group learning activities may be much more appropriate. Ramirez's theories on the cooperative behavior of Mexican American children as opposed to the competitive behavior of Anglo children have interesting implications on how learning situations should be structured for Mexican American children. Administrators and classroom teachers dealing with Mexican American migrant children should be familiar with Ramirez's concepts.

The initial diagnosis and prescription are only the beginning of the testing process. After the child is taught each objective, his learning needs to be evaluated and new skills to be learned prescribed. Ongoing diagnosis and evaluation can be done daily, or, at a minimum, weekly. Continual evaluation needs to be done not only to measure the student's growth, but also to measure the effectiveness of the activities the teacher has structured. Ongoing diagnosis and evaluation can be done in a variety of ways, including teacher observation, checklists, and criterion referenced tests. Norm-referenced tests are usually used at less frequent intervals than needed for ongoing classroom planning.

Affective Needs--Biculturalism

A child's positive self-concept is necessarily related to a positive concept of his home. Therefore, it is almost impossible to speak about a limited English speaking migrant child's affective needs without talking about a biculturalism in the classroom. Numerous studies have shown the relationship of children's self concept to their academic achievement. Regardless of the program model, affective needs must be met.

Biculturalism is especially important for bilingual programs because of the close relationship of the language to the culture. Biculturalism can also be an important part of an ESL program because it makes children feel that the home culture is accepted while introducing a new culture. A bicultural enrichment program can help foster mutual respect and understanding between Spanish speaking migrant students and Anglo students.

Bicultural enrichment can be integrated into core subject areas such as language arts and math. A student can just as easily learn to read if he is reading about Juan and Maria rather than Dick and Jane. The values and lifestyles of Juan and Maria (who are hopefully not just Dick and Jane colored brown) may be similar to his own. In math, it is just as efficient for a child to learn to count objects that are culturally relevant to him rather than unknown objects.

It should not be hard to bring bicultural elements into the areas of social studies, music, and art, as they are "naturals" for studies of culture. Holidays, varying styles in clothing, and geography can be taught migrant students in all grade levels partly by showing them examples in the community. Music and art can show students that there are many creative outlets in all cultures. Nutrition education and food experiences may be studied in conjunction with social studies and the arts. Nutrition education can teach migrant children ways in which foods within their culture are good for them, as well as introduce them to foods that they have never experienced. A creative nutrition education program could structure food experiences around various cultural topics.

Career education can be used to point out many positive aspects of bilingualism and biculturalism. Through studies in career education,

migrant students can learn about many job opportunities which will be open to bilingual students who complete high school and/or college. Students at the elementary level and even at the kindergarten level are not too young to become aware of various career options open to them.

Using migrant parents in the classroom also promotes biculturalism. Parents can be used as assistants for special events such as field trips and parties, as well as in the everyday classroom curriculum. A migrant parent may have a special talent in cooking that he or she can share in a nutrition education class. Another migrant parent may be musically talented and may be proud to teach the children songs or how to play various musical instruments. A creative science lesson could include a study of food producing plants with a migrant parent taking a large part in the discussion. The opportunities for involving migrant parents in the classroom are limited only by a teacher's imagination.

Finally, bicultural education should teach not only an appreciation of the home culture, but an awareness of and an ability to deal with the dominant culture. The purpose of such education is to give the migrant child skills to deal with those different from himself and to increase his options in adult life. Bilingual education is especially critical for the migrant child who may be isolated in rural areas away from the dominant culture. Migrant students can learn much from field trips to department stores, factories, offices, etc. If his education is successful, eventually the migrant child will feel that he does indeed possess the ability to cope with nearly everything in this multi-cultural, multilingual world.

PROGRAM EVALUATION AND DISSEMINATION

Evaluation is an essential part of any program, necessary to measure the success of the past efforts, as well as to insure successful planning in the future. Methods of program evaluation must be decided upon before the program in question is ever launched.

Programs may be evaluated in the areas of management, staff development, education, parental involvement, and support services (social services, health, nutrition), among others. Evaluation can be carried out in terms of process (for example, what activities will we carry out to meet our goals?) and produce (for example, what will the end result be?). Both the process and the product evaluations must be consistent with the goals established at the program outset. A series of excellent references for program evaluation are the mid-year and program year evaluation reports for the Bilingual Mini-School Tutoring Project (1972-75).

Once a program evaluation is completed, it should be used in future program planning, and not put on a shelf to collect dust. If it is particularly well planned and informative, it may be disseminated to other programs and to interested administrators. A well planned and carried out evaluation can be an excellent way of assisting other programs by showing them what has and has not been effective. If certain new approaches are of special help to children, they are worth sharing.

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The limited English speaking migrant child is not an "unusual child." He is only a child with special needs. Since school systems do not generally have much experience in dealing with migrant children, this monograph is intended to give these school systems some ideas with which they might provide better educational opportunities for Spanish speaking migrant children.

The education of Spanish speaking migrant children has been neglected at federal, state, and local levels. There has never been an adequate count of migrant children. The Migrant Student Record Transfer System does collect a lot of information about these children, but it fails to record either the child's home language or his dominant language. Certainly this information is as critical to program planning as the child's scores on specific tests, which are listed. Before Spanish speaking migrant children's needs can be met on a national level, determination of the number of migrant children currently enrolled in elementary and high schools is needed to get Congressional support and funds for migrant programs.

State educational agencies and local educational agencies must also become more aware of the needs of Spanish speaking migrant children. Efforts to meet their needs must be made in states without ESL or bilingual legislation, as well as in those with such legislation. State agencies must provide leadership to local schools that need special expertise, as well as distributing funds for various local projects. Hopefully, through

combined efforts at federal, state, and local levels, all migrant children who need bilingual education or ESL will have access to such programs.

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APPENDIX A

List of Colleges and Universities Offering Bilingual Education Training

Dr. Carlos Vallejo
Arizona State University
College of Education
Tempe, Arizona 85281

Dr. Rodolfo Serrano
California State University at Bakersfield
School of Education
9001 Stockdale Highway
Bakersfield, California 93309

Ms. Sylvia Rose Gonzalez
California State University, Dominquez Hills
School of Education
1000 East Victoria Street
Dominquez Hills, California 90747

Dr. Charles F. Leyba
California State University at Los Angeles
Bilingual Teacher Training Center
5151 State University Drive
Los Angeles, California 90032

Dr. Dolores Escobar Litsinger
California State University at Northridge
Department of Elementary Education
Northridge, California 91324

Dr. Roberto D. Segura
California State University at Sacramento
Department of Teacher Education
6000 J Street
Sacramento, California 95819

Dr. M. Reyes Mazon
San Diego State University
Institute for Cultural Pluralism
School of Education
San Deigo, California 92182

Dr. Gustavo Gonzalez
University of California at Santa Barbara
Graduate School of Education
Bilingual/Cross-Cultural Program
Santa Barbara, California 93106

Dr. Jose R. Llanes
University of San Francisco
Multicultural Program
Golden Gate and Parker Avenues
San Francisco, California 94117

Dr. Gus Garcia
University of the Pacific
School of Education
Stockton, California 95211

Dr. Leonard Baca
University of Colorado
School of Education
Division of Educational Specialists
Boulder, Colorado 80309

Dr. Byron Massiales
Florida State University
School of Education
Tallahassee, Florida 32306

Dr. Henry Trueba
University of Illinois at Urbana
College of Education
329 Education Building
Urbana, Illinois 61801

Dr. Kenneth Nickel
Wichita State University
College of Education
Box 28
Wichita, Kansas 67208

Dr. Maria E. Brisk
Boston University
School of Education
Boston, Massachusetts 02215

Dr. Sylvia Viera
University of Massachusetts
School of Education
Bilingual Bicultural Professions Program
Amherst, Massachusetts 01002

Dr. James Snoddy
Michigan State University
School of Education
Room 349 Erickson Hall
East Lansing, Michigan 48824

Dr. Tadashi Kikuoka and Dr. Albert Reiners
Seton Hall University
Center of Bilingual Education
South Orange, New Jersey 07103

Dr. Atilano Valencia
New Mexico State University at Las Cruces
Educational Resource Center
Box 3AC
Las Cruces, New Mexico 88003

Dr. William Sanchez and Dr. Jane Kopp
University of New Mexico at Albuquerque
College of Education
107 Education Administration Building
Albuquerque, New Mexico 87131

Dr. Richard Baecher
Fordham University
School of Education at Lincoln Center
Room 1024 - 113 West 60th Street
New York, New York 10023

Dr. Isabel Sirgado
Hofstra University
School of Education
Hampstead, New York 11550

Dr. Gladys Wolff
Long Island University at Brooklyn Center
385 Flatbush Avenue
Brooklyn, New York 11201

Dr. Pedro Algarin
New York University
735 East Building
Washington Square
New York, New York 10003

Dr. Efthimia Bozinou
St. John's University
Grand Center and Utopia Parkways
Jamaica, New York 11439

Dr. Lester Golub
Pennsylvania State University
College of Education
University Park, Pennsylvania 16802

Dr. Max Castillo
University of Houston
Department of Curriculum and Instruction
Bilingual/Multicultural Program Area
Houston, Texas 77004

Dr. George Blanco
University of Texas at Austin
College of Education
Austin, Texas 78712

Dr. Marie Barker
University of Texas at El Paso
College of Education
El Paso, Texas 79968

Dr. Albar A. Pena
University of Texas at San Antonio
Division of Bicultural-Bilingual Studies
San Antonio, Texas 78285

Dr. Juan Juarez
University of Washington
College of Education
Seattle, Washington 98195

Dr. Macario Saldate
University of Arizona
College of Education
1437 E. Second Street, Box 601
Tucson, Arizona 85721

Dr. Alfredo Castaneda and
Dr. Arturo Pacheco
Stanford University
School of Education
Stanford, California 94305

Dr. Elnora A. Old Coyote
Montana State University
Bozeman, Montana 59715

Dr. Ricardo Garcia
University of Oklahoma
College of Education
Norman, Oklahoma 73069

Dr. Mario Benitez
Texas A and I University
Bilingual Education Center
Kingsville, Texas 78363

APPENDIX B

Bilingual Education Centers

Training Resource Centers

Roberto Cruz
Berkeley Resource Center
2168 Shattuck Avenue
Berkeley, California 94704
(415) 549-1820

Anthony M. Vega
Comprehensive Educational Assistance Center
800 North State College Boulevard
Fullerton, California 92634
(714) 870-3109

Steven F. Arvizu
Cross-Cultural Resource Center
6000 "J" Street
Sacramento, California 95819
(916) 454-6985

M. Reyes Mazon
Bilingual Education Training Resource Center
Institute for Cultural Pluralism
5544½ Hardy Avenue
San Diego, California 92182
(714) 286-5193

Maria Medina-Swanson
Midwest Resource Center for Bilingual Bicultural Education
Bilingual Education Service Center
500 South Dwyer Avenue
Arlington Heights, Illinois 60005
(312) 255-9820

Robert Fontenot
University of Southwestern Louisiana
Bilingual Bicultural Resource Center
East University Avenue
Lafayette, Louisiana 70504
(318) 233-3850

(Source: Office of Bilingual Education, U. S. Office of Education)

Antonio Simoes
New England Bilingual Training Resource Center
765 Commonwealth Avenue
Boston, Massachusetts 02215
(617) 353-4365

Jose A. Gandert
Southwest Bilingual Education Training Resource Center
The University of New Mexico
College of Education
Albuquerque, New Mexico 87131
(505) 277-3551

Carmen Velkas
Regional Bilingual Training Resource Center
Center for Bilingual Education
110 Livingston Street, Room 224
Brooklyn, New York 11202
(212) 858-5505

Dr. Frank X. Sutman
Merit Center
Ritter Hall Annex, Room 434
Broad Street and Montgomery Avenue
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19122
(215) 787-6258

Adeline Becker
New England Multilingual-Multicultural Teaching
Resource Center
86 Fourth Street
Providence, Rhode Island 02906
(401) 331-3627

Joel Gomez
South Central Bilingual Resource Center
Region XIII Education Service Center
6504 Tracor Lane
Austin, Texas 78721
(512) 926-8080

Dr. Hugo Rivera
National Network of Bilingual Bicultural Education
Intermountain Resource Center
2201 East 13th Street
Salt Lake City, Utah 84109
(801) 581-8221

Dr. Robert Manion
Bilingual Education Technical Assistance Center
P. O. Box 1357
Tacoma, Washington 98401
(206) 383-1811

Dr. Juan Juarez
Bilingual Training Resource Center
University of Washington
122 Miller Hall
Seattle, Washington 98195
(206) 543-9424

Dissemination and Assessment Centers

John Correiro
Dissemination and Assessment Center
Lesley College
29 Everett Street
Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138
(617) 492-0505

Charles Leyba
Assessment and Dissemination Center
California State University
5151 State University Drive
Los Angeles, California 90032
(213) 224-3631

Joel Gomez
Dissemination and Assessment Center for Bilingual Education
Education Service Center - Region XIII
Program Development Division
6504 Tracor Lane
Austin, Texas 78721
(512) 926-6129

Materials Development Centers

Tupou Pulu
Alaskan Native Language Material Development Center
University of Alaska
Rural Education Affairs
104 Bunnell
Fairbanks, Alaska 99701
(907) 479-7259 (Develops for Alaskan Languages)

Elizabeth M. Antley
Arizona Bilingual Materials Development Center
University of Arizona
1434 East 2nd Street
Tucson, Arizona 85721
(602) 884-3724

Dennis Fukumoto
Asian Bilingual Material Center
15 West Alhambra Road
Alhambra, California 91801 (Develops for Chinese,
(213) 289-5411 Japanese, and Korean)

Linda Wing
Asian American Bilingual Center
2168 Shattuck (Develops for Chinese,
Berkeley, California 94704 Japanese, Korean,
(415) 848-3199 Filipino, and Samoan)

Roberto Ortiz
Multilingual-Multicultural Materials Development Center
3801 West Temple Avenue
Pomona, California 91768
(714) 598-4984

Ralph Robinett
Spanish Curricula Development Center
7100 N. W. 17th Avenue
Miami, Florida 33147
(303) 696-2244

Henry Trueba and Rudolfo Martinez
Midwest Office for Materials Development
University of Illinois
College of Education
Urbana, Illinois 61801
(217) 333-2615

Andrew Ford
National Materials Development Center for French and
Portuguese
168 South River Road
Bedford, New Hampshire 01102 (Develops for French and
(603) 668-7198 Portuguese)

John Young
Asian Bilingual Curriculum Development Center
4400 South Orange Avenue
South Orange, New Jersey 07079 (Develops for Chinese,
(201) 762-9000 Korean, and Japanese)

Gloria Emerson
Native American Materials Development Center
407 Rio Grande Blvd., N. W.
Albuquerque, New Mexico 87103
(505) 242-5222 (Develops for Navajo)

Aurea Rodriguez
Northeast Center for Curriculum Development
778 Forest Avenue
Bronx, New York 10456

Carlos Perez
Bilingual Materials Development Center
6000 Camp Bowie Road
Fort Worth, Texas 76107
(817) 731-0736

Juan Solis
The National Center for the Development of Bilingual Curriculum
3700 Ross Avenue
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(214) 824-1620

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Ms. Arnow has an M.S. in Bilingual Education/Teaching English as a Second Language and has experience in both migrant education and bilingual education. At present, she is a consultant with Development Associates, Inc., of Washington, D. C., where she is active in several studies in the field of education. Relevant to this paper, she is involved in a contract with the U. S. Office of Education to analyze the status of bilingual curriculum materials development. She was also a field evaluator on a study of state-supported bilingual programs. In addition, she is working on an implementation study of Project Developmental Continuity, a Head Start experimental program which emphasizes bilingual multicultural education.

Prior to her present position, Ms. Arnow worked with the Broward County, Florida Migrant Education Center as a tutorial-teacher. She supervised paraprofessionals in a tutorial program and taught ESL to Spanish speaking migrant students. Ms. Arnow also taught in a bilingual bi-national school in Colombia, S. A.